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ABSTRACT

The results of a conference of Canadian teacher associations are presented and interpreted. The principal themes of the conference were teacher unemployment and the financing of education. A review of developments in education and teaching in Canada over the past few years and implications for the future comprise the body of this report. Statistics on school population, expenditures, and student teacher ratio in the Canadian provinces are presented in tabular form. (JD)

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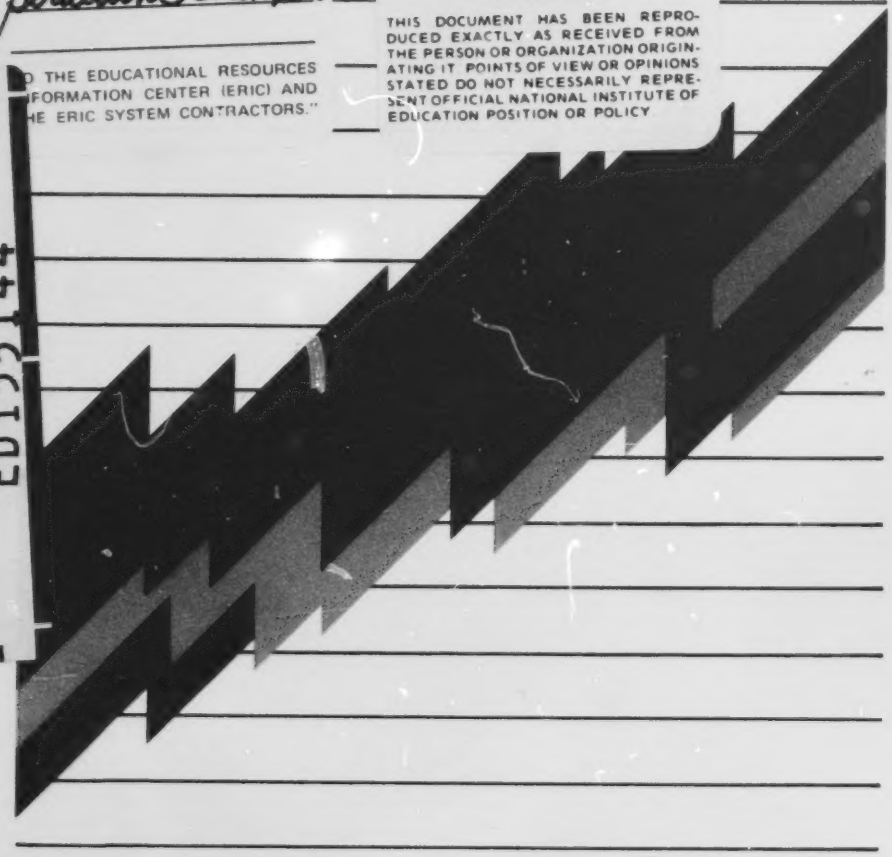

a Continuing Priority

by Geraldine L. Channon & Wilfred J. Brown

EDUCATION

A CONTINUING PRIORITY

Geraldine L. Channon
Wilfred J. Brown

Canadian Teachers' Federation
1978

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Foreword

Early in 1977, the Canadian Teachers' Federation was invited to participate in a conference sponsored by the International Teachers Trade Union Cooperation Committee — a Paris-based group which organizes biennial conferences in an attempt to bridge the ideological divisions between international teacher organizations. The 1977 conference held May 2-5 was hosted by the Centrale de l'enseignement du Québec. Its principal themes were teacher unemployment and the financing of education.

The host organization, the CEQ, is a provincial teachers' association which, like the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Quebec, is not affiliated with the Canadian Teachers' Federation. CTF, however, represents the remaining 13 provincial and territorial teacher organizations, comprising a total membership of 212,000 teachers, and including the Provincial Association of Catholic Teachers of Quebec.

Initially, it was planned that CTF and CEQ would cooperate in the production of a single document reflecting developments in education throughout Canada and current teacher concerns. Two staff members of each organization were assigned to work on this project. For various reasons, however, it was found more practicable for each organization to prepare its own separate document, though consultation was maintained and a joint submission made to the conference on the basis of the two documents.

The CTF document was reviewed by the CTF Board of Directors and a decision made that it be published following the conference.

It offers a succinct review of developments in education and teaching in Canada over the past few years and a starting point for discussion of their implications for the future.

Norman M. Goble,
Secretary General,
Canadian Teachers' Federation.

1 Understanding Education in Canada

In order to understand Canadian developments in education and in the status of teachers, it is necessary to consider Canada in the world context. Although Canada has remained small in population (23 million), and has never become an industrial giant, it has nevertheless participated in the general prosperity of the "developed" western countries. It has also inherited and developed democratic traditions in its form of government and its institutions. Moreover, Canada has been mercifully free of the ravages of war and civil strife. Discussions of education in Canada, therefore, tend to take place against a background of peace and prosperity to which many countries aspire, but which relatively few have achieved.

It must also be understood that, again in contrast to many countries, control of education is in Canada quite decentralized. The constitution gives to each of the ten provincial governments the exclusive right to make laws in regard to education. Moreover, a tradition of local control of schools has grown up and been recognized through the delegation of various powers and responsibilities to elected school boards, which in some provinces at least have access to locally raised taxes.

Although the constitutional framework would appear to suggest the creation of "many solitudes" in the educational world, there has in fact been a considerable degree of communication and cross-fertilization among the educational jurisdictions. As a result, the various systems are in many respects very much alike, despite

the myriad differences of detail. Communication has, moreover, been enhanced through the development of such disparate agencies as the Council of Ministers of Education, the Canadian Education Association, the Canadian Teachers' Federation, and the Canadian School Trustees' Association.

Nor has the federal government stood aloof from education. Because of the constitution, and because of disagreements over the mere existence, let alone the exact dimensions, of the federal role, the polite fiction is maintained by federal officials that "education is a strictly provincial matter". In consequence, federal participation in education goes by many other names, such as regional economic expansion, native peoples, technical training, research grants, bilingualism, local initiative programs, or equalization grants. To be more specific, the federal government has in the past two decades built schools in certain provinces (regional economic expansion), maintained schools for the Indian and Inuit peoples, funded teacher education programs for native peoples, and encouraged employment of native teacher aides. In the early 1960's, it provided large-scale incentive grants for the building and operation of vocational technical schools. It has provided research grants to scholars in the arts, humanities and social sciences. It has also funded and published various studies dealing directly with education. It provides bilingualism grants to the provinces and has funded experimental immersion programs in the public system. It purchases manpower upgrading courses, and courses for immigrants, from the provinces. As a means of decreasing unemployment it has funded various "local initiative programs" which, for example, enabled a number of school boards to hire teacher aides. Recently, it has announced that it plans to provide grants to

encourage work experience programs at the secondary and post-secondary levels. The federal government also has responsibility for collection of statistics of education. Finally, and most important, the fiscal policies of the federal government include tax-sharing arrangements which provide for a measure of equalization of financial resources among the various provinces. Although not earmarked, these revenues are of great importance to the provinces in maintaining their public services, including education. With some sixty-six federal departments and agencies associated with education and culture, "federal-provincial arrangements have become so complex that many of them are unknown to most federal and provincial civil servants, let alone teacher and trustee organizations or individual electors". (Hodgson, 1976, p. 50)

There is no federal policy in education, and no unified department or minister of education to which concerns may be brought. In consequence, the federal government tends to dabble in education, in order to achieve the economic and social purposes of the moment, without becoming really rooted in the full traditions of the educational movement. Federal "dabbling", however, amounted to about $2.5 billion in 1975. (OECD, 1976, p. 90)

2 The Historical Background

The education systems which now exist in Canada have been shaped by various complex forces. Ideas about the purposes and scope of education have come with the immigrants or have filtered into the country by other means. Some ideas were already present in the traditions of the native peoples. The idea of free, universal and compulsory education arrived long ago and has become an accepted part of the elementary-secondary systems. On the other hand, a battle still rages over access to post-secondary education, with some arguing that higher education should be free, and others arguing that it should be made more costly (on the premise that it benefits the individual more than society). The Economic Council of Canada, for example, offered the following opinion in 1971:

> In those cases in which the returns to the individual markedly exceed the returns to society . . . and in cases in which substantial income transfers may be taking place from those with relatively low incomes today to those with potentially very high incomes in the future, the possibility that individuals should pay more for their education in some appropriate manner should be examined. (Economic Council, 1971, p. 224)

University students are still conducting intermittent strikes against fee increases.

Perhaps the most profound change affecting the development of education in Canada has been the shift from an agrarian society depending upon manual skills to an urbanized and technological society requiring

academic and technical skills. In 1901, approximately 40 per cent of the labour force was engaged in agricultural occupations. By 1961, the percentage had fallen to 10 per cent. In the same time period, the per cent of the labour force engaged in white collar work had risen from 15 to 40. (Wood, 1961, p. 1039) Similarly, a study of job content conducted in 1967 indicated a shift away from jobs with low skills content. Thirty-two per cent of the labour force was engaged in such jobs in 1941, but only 23.5 per cent in 1961. (Scoville, 1967, p. 11) The trend to urbanization is reflected in statistics indicating that the urban population increased from 34.9 per cent in 1911 to 69.7 per cent in 1961 and 76.1 per cent in 1971. (Statistics Canada, 1974, p. 5) By 1971, a quarter of the population was living in cities of 100,000 or more.

The swift movement to industrialization, unaccompanied by much educational reform, created a paradoxical situation in which the country became dependent upon immigrants to fill jobs requiring high level skills while at the same time many native-born persons sought in vain for suitable employment. By the mid-fifties, conditions were ripe for an infusion of resources into the education systems to train the manpower that seemed to be needed for industrial development.

Accompanying the change to an urban society, and aggravating the educational problems, was the unrestrained leap in population that began after the Second World War and continued until the invention of the birth control pill in the early 1960's. The increase and decline in the live birth rate is illustrated graphically in Figure 1.* Specific rates are shown by five-year intervals in Table 1.* The live birth rate peaked at 28.2 in 1955, then

* Note: Figures are interspersed with text.
Tables are all to be found in Appendix A.

declined to 21.3 in 1965 and an estimated 15.7 in 1975. The increase in birth rate in the forties and fifties resulted in an increase in school age population (age 5-19) of 45 per cent between 1950 and 1960 alone. (See Table 2 and Figure 2). By 1970, nearly a third of the population was of school age. (See Table 3)

There was also a reborn interest in egalitarianism, interpreted first as equality of educational opportunity and later as compensatory education and the redistribution of power among various groups. One may identify two main periods in educational developments in the last few decades. Representative of ideas which became current in the earlier period (late fifties and early sixties) was John Porter's book, *The Vertical Mosaic*, which pointed out that much of the real power in Canadian society was held by a small elite of wealthy, privately educated people, whose influence operated through an old-boy network. He also pointed out that many Canadian workers were deprived of opportunities for upward mobility through the lack of educational facilities. (Porter, 1965, pp. 49-54) Porter became a strong advocate of the development of higher education and especially technically oriented post-secondary education.

> There is a point at which, in becoming industrialized, societies can get along with training a relatively small middle class, or can import skills from outside, as Canada has done. But there is also a point in industrial development when educational systems must take off and be thought of in an entirely new way. The new way takes the form of vast increases in the availability of post-secondary education. (Porter, 1967, p. 8)

Also representative of the earlier period was the furore created by the launching of Sputnik and the Cold

FIGURE 1

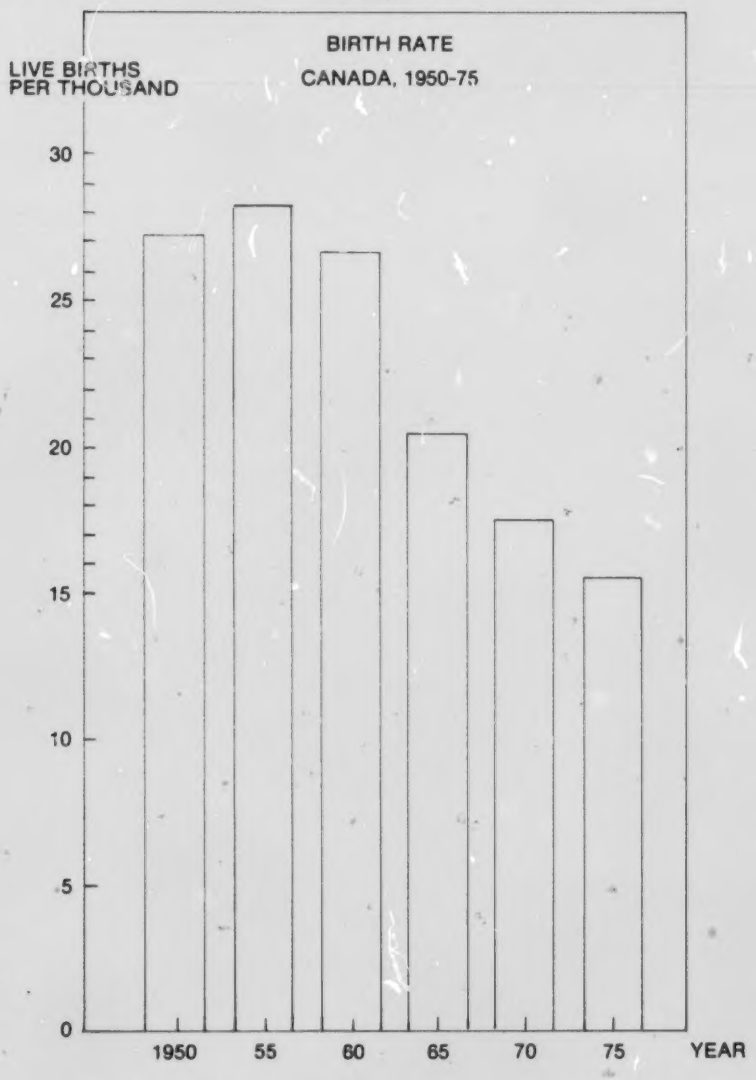

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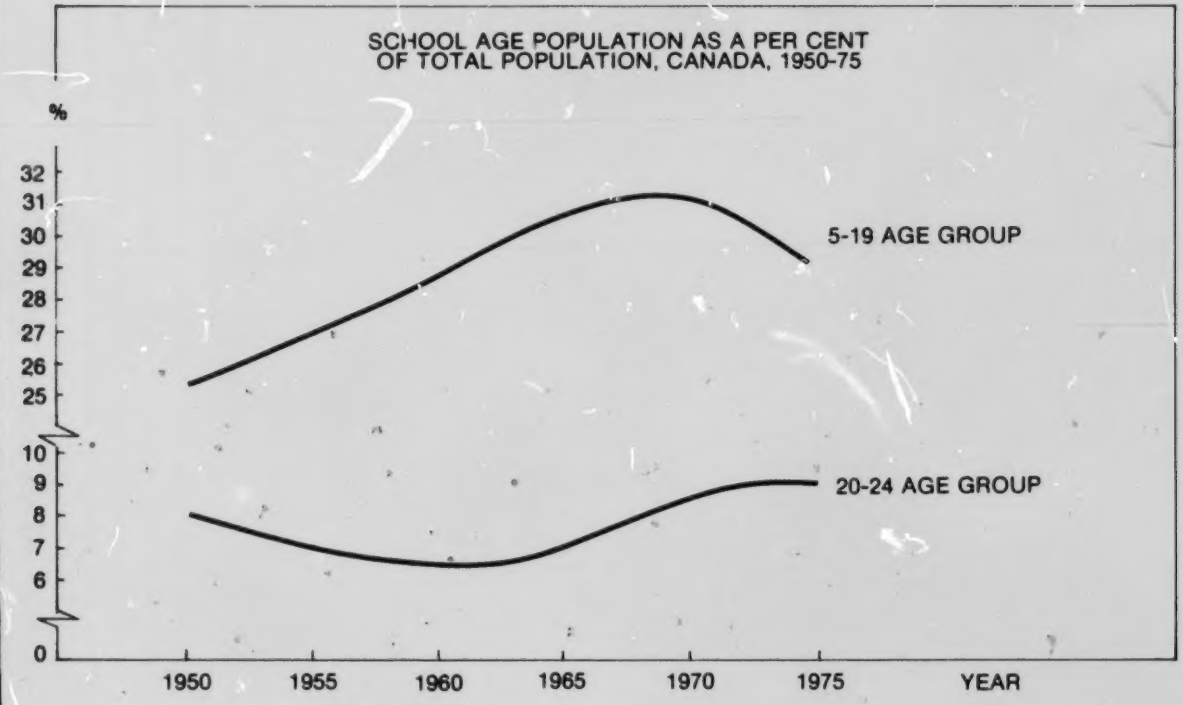
FIGURE 2



Source: Derived from Table 3

War-inspired fear that Russia was out in space, while Johnny still couldn't read. On top of this, Canada was worried about the Brain Drain (the emigration of highly educated persons to the United States).

Representatives of business and industry continued to display their usual petulance toward education, but during the mid-sixties their pronouncements took on a somewhat new tone. The "Pussycats" prowled the land, registering impatience with the slowness of educational change and seeking a swift and radical transformation of the school system. The Pussycats were prominent members of the education establishment and of technology-oriented businesses and industries; included were the education ministers of the two largest provinces, Ontario and Quebec. In essence, the Pussycats felt that "Canada must introduce into its education system improvements so radical they can be accomplished only through application of the latest techniques in management and technology". (Zwicker, 1966, p. 36) Curiously enough, one of their complaints against education was that "high school graduates . . . often could not spell correctly or compose understandable sentences". (Zwicker, 1966, p. 38) It seems that this complaint is directed against the schools at least once every decade. A primary objective of the group was the founding of a Canadian Office of Education. The article describing the Pussycats created quite a stir when it first appeared in the influential *Toronto Globe and Mail*. It is also worth noting that the Council of Ministers of Education was founded not long after. The non-governmental Pussycats were not, however, invited to join the Council, and did not even enjoy the solace of finding a steady market for their technological wares within the schools. Teaching machines did not, after all, take over.

The later ideas contributing to educational developments (mid-sixties to early seventies) were less oriented toward the technical-vocational aspects and in some respects almost a reaction to it. This was the era when students went out in revolt against the wars of their elders. They also protested against their lack of power and involvement, and against attempts to regiment their behaviour. Broad inequities in society were recognized and attacked. In the United States, Lyndon Johnson opened the War on Poverty and at home in Canada, Pierre Trudeau proclaimed the Just Society. By 1970, the Age of Aquarius was dawning and participatory democracy was making the land strong. (But not strong for Trudeau, who campaigned on this slogan and came up with a minority government.) During this period attention centred on the beginning of the schooling years, in the belief that inequities could be dealt with more readily through pre-school and primary education, when children were in their formative years.

In all of this ferment, in the 1950's and 1960's, the schools suddenly became the focus of public attention. Education became "everybody's business" in the words of the Education Week promoters. "Stay in school" became the slogan of the era, and the prime article of belief was that "Education increases your earning power". Education would end poverty, promote economic growth, and fit man to live in the leisure society which would characterize the post-industrial phase of development in the western countries. In Quebec, under the LeSage government, the Quiet Revolution began, and encompassed within its aims far-reaching reform of the educational system.

The educational world responded in a harassed but delighted manner. New schools were built, small schools and districts consolidated. New equipment and

resources arrived by the truckload. Innovative programs were welcomed. Successive curriculum reforms swept the land. The Hall-Dennis report in Ontario helped open the door to continuous progress in the elementary schools and cafeteria-style organization of secondary schools by noting that "it is irrational and unfair to require all children to start in school at a common level or to expect them to reach standards of achievement with any degree of uniformity", by suggesting that the ideal school system "would include no horizontal or vertical division of pupils into such groupings as elementary, secondary, vocational, or academic or above or below average", and by stressing that teachers and pupils must be freed "from the confines of structured, isolated subjects". (*Living and Learning*, 1968, pp. 75-77)

Within this somewhat euphoric atmosphere, education in Canada entered into an expansionary phase and simultaneously began a quest for greater equality within the system.

3 The Quest for Equality

The concept of equality as a positive social value is young, its evolution being linked with that of democracy as a political ideology. When equality is viewed as something more than a synonym for "fairness", "equity" or "justice", there are at least two of its aspects which may be identified: equality of outcomes and equality of opportunity.

Equality of outcomes would prevail if there were an equal distribution of income and other social rewards. Equality of opportunity, on the other hand, refers to the conditions of access to high incomes and social rewards. It may be measured in terms of the probabilities for achieving specific desirable outcomes for people with similar backgrounds and abilities or for people with different backgrounds and abilities.

The following explanation of the conceptual distinction between inequality of outcomes and inequality of opportunities is offered by Coleman:

> If there are two societies with a given degree of inequality of result, one of them might have total inequality of opportunity, via direct transmission of occupational position and wealth from father to son, while the other might have total equality of opportunity, with the son's income unrelated to that of his father. Of course, at the extreme of perfect income equality, there can be no inequality of opportunity since there is no opportunity to do better or worse. (Coleman, 1973, p. 130)

It is important to recognize that the concept one holds of "equality", as referring primarily to equality of results or to equality of opportunity, depends crucially upon the social, political and economic ideology and the normative philosophy of man held. On the one hand, a person committed to liberal, democratic values and a capitalist market economy might be expected to stress the equal opportunity to compete. On the other hand, a person committed to the socialist values might stress the need to treat individuals in such a manner as to produce the identical levels of total benefits.

Equality in Education

Educational systems have come in for heavy criticism in recent years despite tremendous growth in retention rates. The more critical climate to some extent reflects a shift in emphasis from equality of access to equality of outcomes. There have been several stages in the evolution of the concept of equality in education. Initially, equality in education meant free education up to a specified age and a common curriculum for all children in the same school within a given locality. The equality lay in access to a common curriculum and common facilities, that is, in an economic sense to the provision of equal service. The onus was clearly on the child and his family to take advantage of the opportunities provided. The role of the schools was the passive one of not excluding the child from participation. This concept of equality was implicit in most educational practice in the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries in Canada.

The second stage in the evolution of the concept of equality in education arose when more and more people began to realize that, although educational facilities may be the same, at least in terms of resources consumed,

their effects may be quite different. In short it became more widely accepted that the characteristics of the students themselves are a part of the "facilities provided", so that equality depends on the socio-economic and socio-racial composition of the schools as well as on the curriculum and physical and other facilities.

A possible third stage defines equality in education with specific reference to the *effects* of schooling on measured educational achievements of individuals with equal backgrounds and abilities. It is possible to foresee a fourth stage in which the evolving concept of equality will be defined with reference to the effects of the schools on the educational attainment of persons of *different* cultural, racial and linguistic backgrounds and different abilities.

The first two stages focus upon the input resources brought to the school through the actions of the school administration (first stage: curriculum, facilities, teacher quality, etc.) or through the qualities of the students (second stage: learning capacities, socio-racial backgrounds). The final two stages focus on the effects of schooling on the child's learning and on the social and economic rewards which accrue in later life as a result of the learning.

The first two stages correspond, generally, to a liberal-capitalist concept of equality in which the goal is to ensure that the chances of achieving the prized rewards of society are as close to being the same for every individual as they can be made. The second stage would make specific provisions for greater relative effort on behalf of children who are in various ways handicapped. The third and fourth stage correspond to a more idealistic, moral-social concept of equality which

requires that individuals should be treated in such a way that the final outcome approaches a situation in which all human beings enjoy the same level of total good.

In Canada, the prevailing concept of equality in education corresponds approximately to the later phases of stage one, that is to say, the emphasis is still on equal access to a common service but with some attention given to stage two, namely, matching students to different curricula according to their abilities and aptitudes.

Despite the prevailing situation, there has been some shift of emphasis in Canada from the definition of particular inputs as the basis of assessment of school quality to the effects of the inputs. This in turn has led to some shift of responsibility from the child to the educational institution. In fact, since the school is merely a service agency for the school governmental authority it represents a shift in the onus for learning from the client (the child or his family) to the service provider (the school and the community). This shift may, in the future, be realized through a change in the concept of the school itself, from the agency within which the child is taught to the agency responsible for seeing that the child learns. The interest in recent years in the notion of "accountability" may be a forerunner of this trend.

Access to Education

It is extremely difficult to document the progress which has been made in Canada in achieving equality in education. However, there is some fragmentary evidence which is worth examining.

Two indicators of progress toward the goal of equality of access are retention rates and participation rates for successive age-groups within the population.

Participation rates increased considerably between the early sixties and the early seventies. In 1960-61, 66.4 per cent of all children in Canada between the ages of 14 and 17 years were at school. By 1974-75, the corresponding percentage had grown to 98.1. (See Table 4 and Figure 3) That is to say, virtually all children in Canada, under the age of 18 years, were engaged in some type of formal schooling. In 1960, only 9.7 per cent of the population between the ages of 18 and 24 years were at school or university. By 1974, this percentage had grown to 19.2. (See Table 4) Actual enrolments on which the participation rates are based are shown for each province in Table 5 and illustrated graphically in Figures 4 and 5.

With regard to retention rates, in 1965 only 50.5 per cent of those who had been enrolled in Grade 2 ten years earlier (adjusted for population movement) were enrolled in Grade 12. (See Table 6) By 1970, this percentage had grown to 69.8 per cent and, according to preliminary information, had reached 75.2 per cent by 1975-76. It is also interesting to note that there has been a considerable narrowing of the range of retention rates among the ten provinces. In 1965, the dispersion (i.e., the co-efficient of variation) among provincial retention rates was 34.8 per cent. By 1970, this value had fallen to 16.8 per cent and varied only slightly above and below that level in the years between 1970 and 1975.

Centralization Tendencies

An important aspect of the quest for equality is the trend to centralization of financial arrangements which it implies. That is to say, if equalization of provincial resources is the objective, then the redistribution can only be carried out by the federal government. Similarly, if equalization of school board resources is required, the

FIGURE 3
PER CENT OF 14-17 YEAR OLDS AT SCHOOL BY PROVINCE
1960-61 AND 1974-75

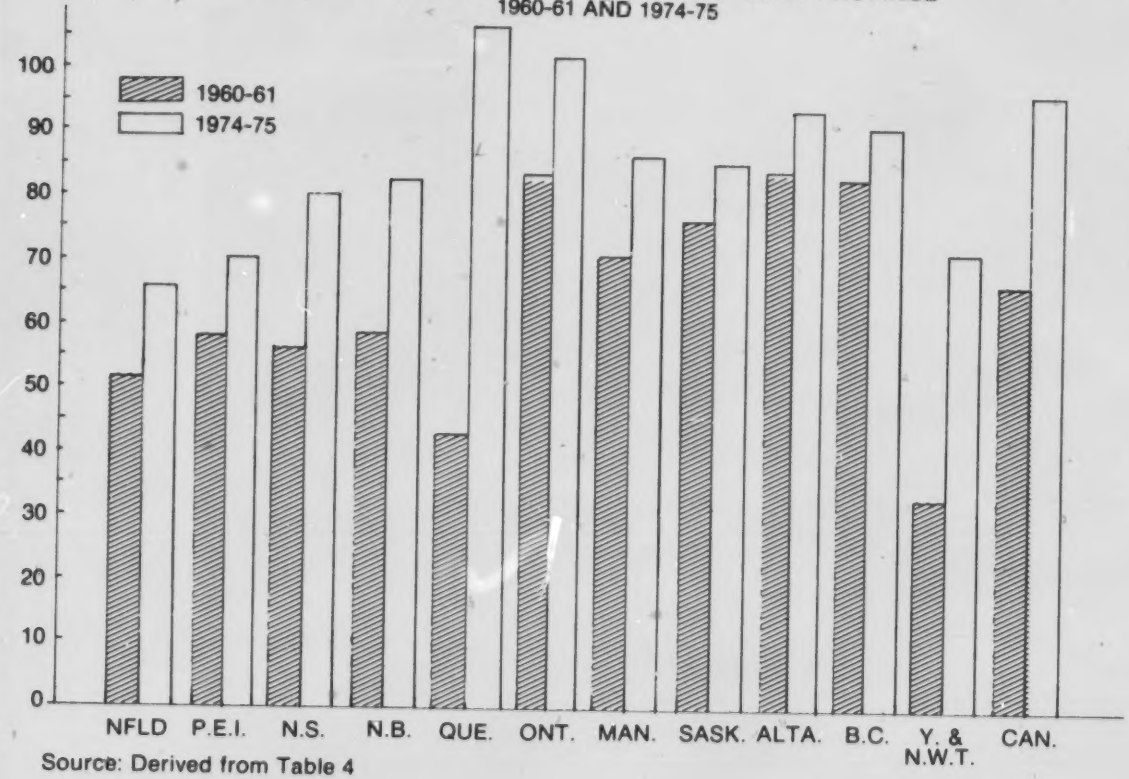


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FIGURE 4

ELEMENTARY - SECONDARY ENROLMENT,
CANADA, 1960-61 TO 1975-76

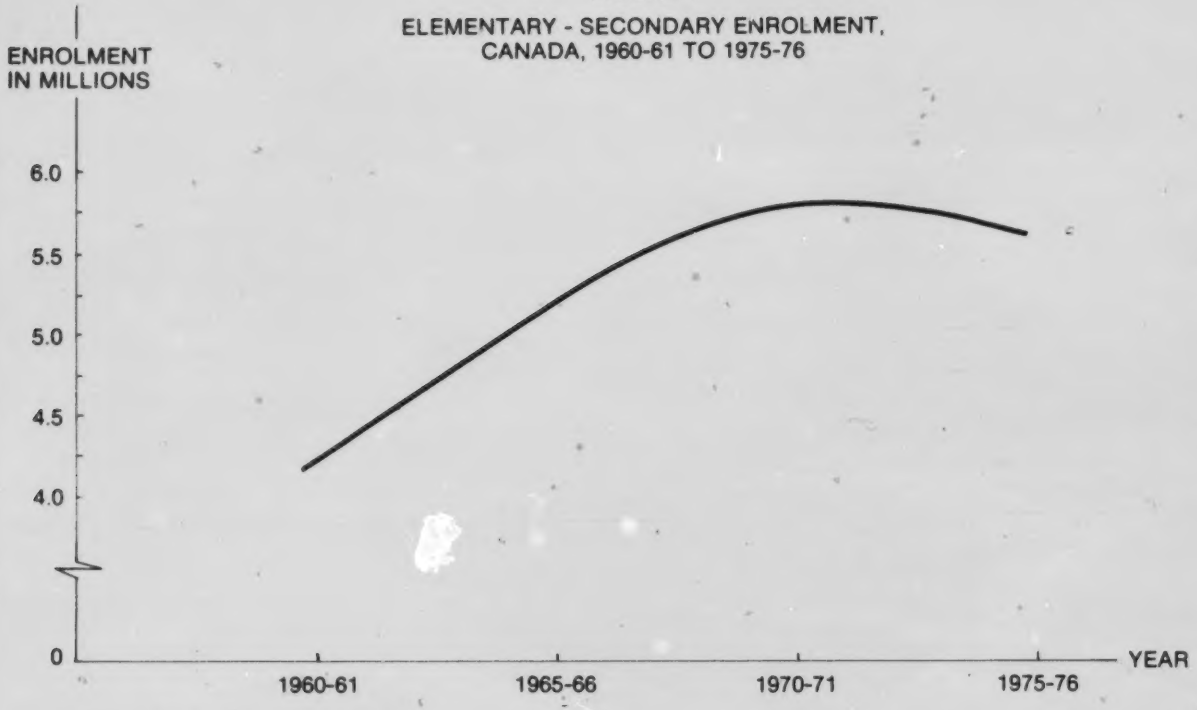

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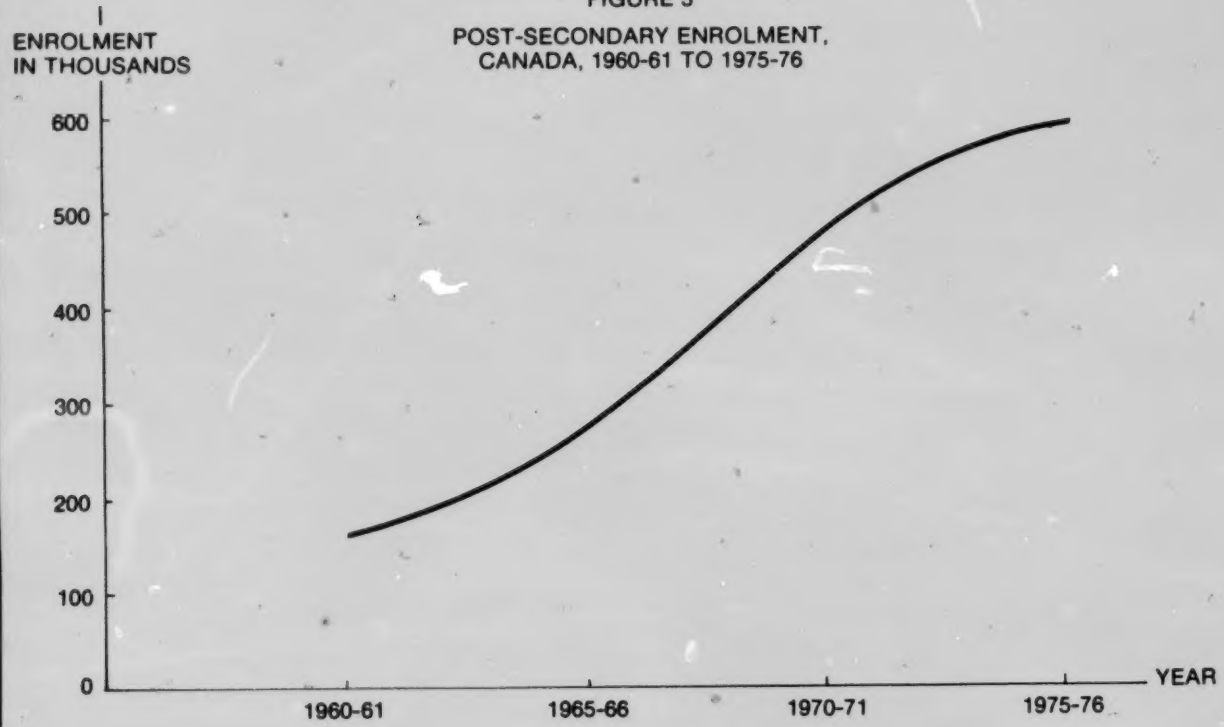
FIGURE 5

POST-SECONDARY ENROLMENT, CANADA, 1960-61 TO 1975-76



Source: Derived from Table 5

redistribution must be carried out by the provincial government. This trend to interprovincial and intraprovincial equalization through centralization was much in evidence in the sixties and early seventies.

In terms of Canada as a whole, it is apparent that one of the reasons for the narrowing of interprovincial differences in retention and other educational measures throughout the sixties and early seventies was the dramatic improvement in general-purpose equalization grants from the federal government to the provinces. In return for access to direct taxes, principally the income tax which is the constitutional preserve of the provinces, the federal government each year pays seven of the ten provinces sufficient money to raise the per capita yield from 20 sources of provincial and local revenue up to the national average per capita yield from these sources of revenue. The only provinces which do not receive these grants, which amounted to $1.9 billion in 1975-76, are Ontario, Alberta and British Columbia.

Although these equalization payments are not earmarked for specific purposes, their impact on the general revenues of the provinces has clearly benefited education along with other social services. For example, in 1960 the average amount spent for elementary and secondary education per student enrolled was $284 and the relative dispersion among the provinces was 30.9 per cent. By 1974, the average spending per student had risen to $1270 and the dispersion among the provinces on this measure had decreased to 11.6 per cent. (See Table 7)

Considerable centralization of school financing also took place within provinces. Some provinces assumed full financial control of education while others greatly increased their contribution to education from

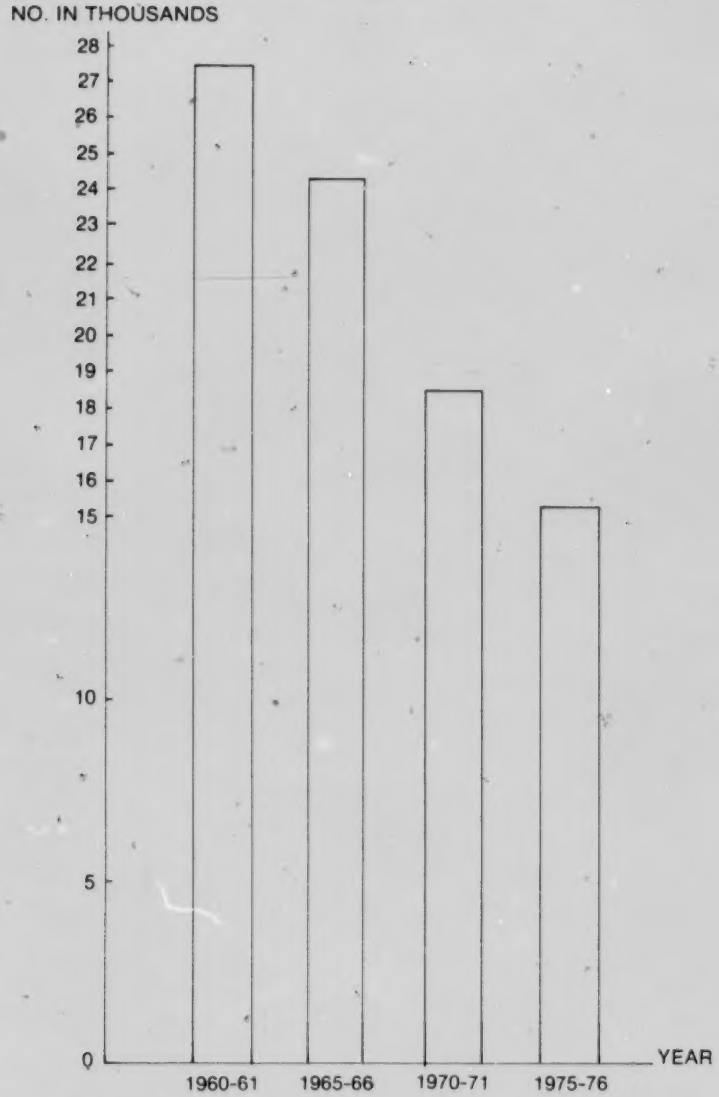
provincially-raised revenues. From 1960 to 1974 the per cent of expenditures on elementary-secondary education derived from provincial sources increased from 41 to an estimated 64 per cent. (See Table 8) This increase in provincial funding was matched by a corresponding decrease in local funding, from 49 to an estimated 29 per cent. The trend away from local financing of education has been important in enabling education to derive financial support from general sources of revenue, such as income tax, rather than depending so heavily on the property tax.

Centralization during the period was not restricted to fiscal arrangements. In addition, considerable effort was made to consolidate small districts and small schools. The one-room rural school which figured so greatly in the memories of many Canadians vanished into history. Equality of opportunity was a principal aim of consolidation. The new larger schools were intended to make available to all children such improved resources as libraries, modern equipment, specialized personnel and a broader range of options. It was also felt that the new schools would attract more highly qualified teachers to rural areas. Economies of scale were also expected from the efforts at consolidation. As may be seen from Table 9 and Figure 6, between 1960-61 and 1975-76 the number of elementary and secondary schools declined in nearly every province. However, at the same time, the average size of school increased, in some cases doubling or tripling over the period. (See Table 10 and Figure 7)

Another concomitant of centralized financing was the trend toward centralized bargaining of teacher salaries. This trend too was associated with equality of opportunity, on the basis that it would end the disparity

FIGURE 6

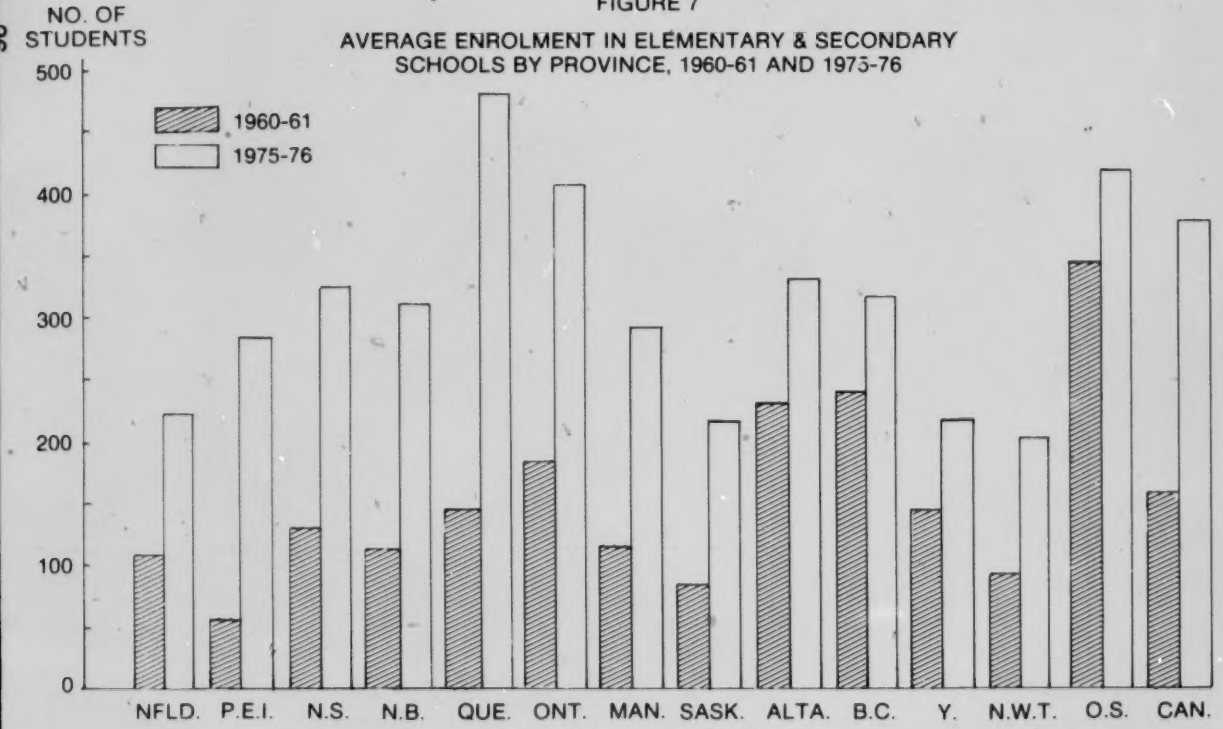
NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY SCHOOLS, CANADA, 1960-61 TO 1975-76



Source: Derived from Table 9

FIGURE 7

AVERAGE ENROLMENT IN ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY PROVINCE, 1960-61 AND 1975-76



Source: Derived from Table 10

between rural and urban salaries, thus ending the financial incentive for teacher migration to urban areas. Although this trend was resisted with varying degrees of vigour by teachers, by 1975 six provinces were bargaining major money matters at the provincial level. As well, the number of bargaining units in the other four provinces had been reduced substantially.

The centralization of financing and bargaining brought forward concern about the fate of local autonomy. To what extent could the locally elected school boards continue to make decisions about their school systems if tight limitations on their spending were to be imposed from a higher level of government? This question has not been resolved. However, it might be noted that in three of the six provinces with central bargaining, negotiations also take place at the local level. Moreover, trustees continue to have some flexibility in choosing programs, provided they stay within the general limits of their funding.

Compensatory Education

In granting operating funds to the school boards, the provinces have in general moved away from earmarked grants and toward general grants based on enrolment. It might be noted that in most provinces there is some recognition of the special needs of disadvantaged and handicapped children through provision within the grant systems of extra funds to help meet their needs. The appearance of such grants would suggest some movement toward an extended definition of equality of education. The growth of kindergartens as part of the public system may also be associated with this redefinition.

4 The Increase in Educational Effort

The expansion of the educational systems in the 1950's and 1960's was reflected both in the total level of financial support provided for education and in the rising shares of national output and total government spending required to provide this support. Total government spending for all levels of education in Canada increased thirteenfold between 1950 and 1970, from $442 million to $5,993 million. This increase in actual spending was reflected in increases in the per cent of GNP and in the per cent of total government spending devoted to education. Between 1950 and 1970 the per cent of GNP spent on education rose from 2.39 to 6.99. (See Table 11) The per cent of total government spending devoted to education rose from 10.7 to 19.1 during the same period.

Much of this increase in educational effort was attributable to the major expansion of post-secondary education over the two decades. When increases in expenditure on elementary and secondary education are considered separately, a rather less dramatic picture emerges. As was pointed out earlier, expenditure per pupil in elementary and secondary education rose from $284 in 1960 to $1,270 in 1974, or by approximately four and one half times. The major factor in this increase was the number of students to be educated. However, some of the increase is attributable to improvements in retention, in teacher qualifications, and in the number and variety of programs offered.

Another way of looking at trends in financing education over the period 1960 to 1970 is to study the

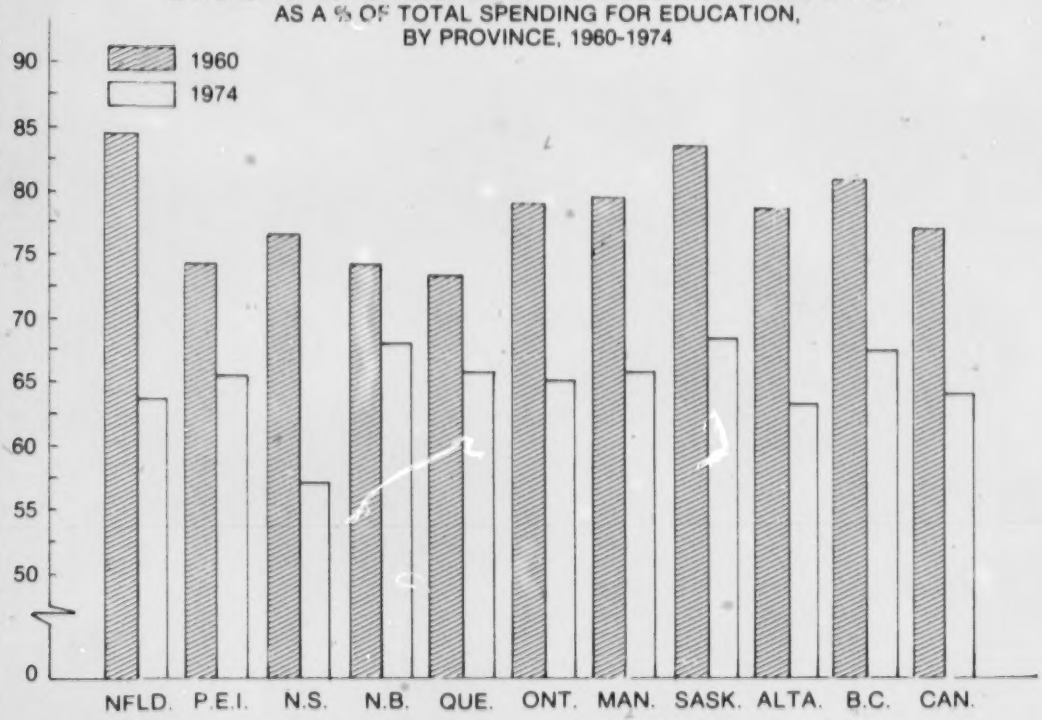
proportion of total education spending devoted to elementary and secondary education. That share declined from 78 per cent in 1960 to 65 per cent in 1970 and has remained at about that level since. (See Table 12 and Figure 8) In essence, then, the major beneficiary of increased educational effort was the post-secondary system.

Actual spending on elementary and secondary education has continued to increase during the 1970's. (See Table 7) However, the relative effort required to provide this increasing level of financial support has declined over the period. The basis for this conclusion is the index shown in Table 13. This index is based on total spending for elementary and secondary education as a percentage of total consolidated provincial-local spending, adjusted downward using school-age population (the 5 to 19 age group) as a share of total population. The purpose of the adjustment is to equalize for interprovincial differences in relative educational need. For Canada as a whole the weighted value of the index declined from 8.03 in 1965 to 5.07 in 1974. The decline in relative effort was characteristic of all provinces.

The growth in spending on education in the 1950's and 1960's was also part of a general upsurge in government spending. Total consolidated spending (after elimination of double counting of intergovernmental transfer payments) of all levels of government in Canada has increased much more rapidly than total national output as measured by the Gross National Product. While GNP increased by 4.5 times between 1950 and 1970, for example, total government spending in Canada increased by 7.5 times. (See Table 11) As a share of GNP, total government spending

FIGURE 8

EXPENDITURES FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION AS A % OF TOTAL SPENDING FOR EDUCATION, BY PROVINCE, 1960-1974



Source: Derived from Table 12

increased from 22.4 per cent in 1950 to 36.7 per cent in 1970 and this trend has continued, thus far, into the 1970's. Government spending now exceeds 40 per cent of national output.

This phenomenon arises mainly from the particular nature of the personal income tax. The schedule of personal income tax rates yields progressively higher proportions of national output as income levels rise due to productivity gains and, in particular, due to inflation. The senior governments have thus been able to reap a growing proportion of national output while making relatively few potentially costly political decisions to increase taxes.

In general, all levels of government in Canada have used their growing, politically costless share of national output to improve social services. Combined spending for health, education and social welfare in Canada increased from 7.1 to 19.6 per cent of GNP between 1950 and 1974 and from 31.7 to 48.9 per cent of total government spending. By five-year intervals between 1950 and 1974, total spending for social services achieved its highest level in relation to total government spending in 1970, 49.7 per cent.

Throughout much of the 1950 to 1970 period education ranked second among the three social services. However, between 1965 and 1970 education ranked first in terms of total government spending on social services. Education has since returned to second rank. (See Table 11) One may perhaps conclude that government, having dealt with the upsurge in enrolments, was, despite its enhanced revenues, not prepared to continue with a level of effort which would permit further improvements in the quality of educational services.

5 Power and Participation - The Teacher Response

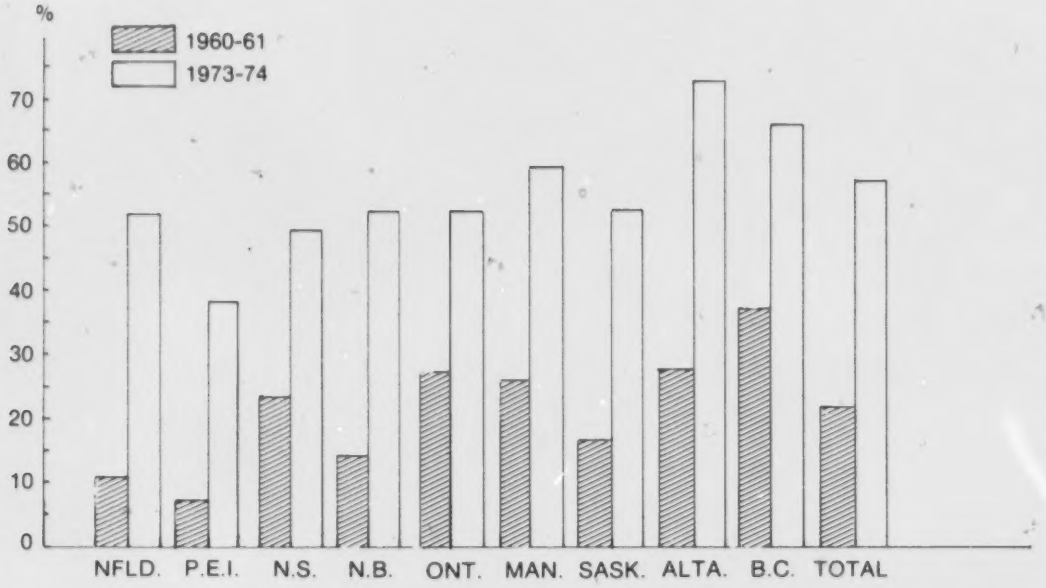
For teachers, the fifties and sixties provided a short glimpse of paradise. Not only were teachers in short supply, but for perhaps the first time society *really needed them*. During the 1950's and early 1960's the economic status of teachers rose dramatically and, for the first time in several decades, surpassed the average status of the employed labour force. The consolidation of schools and the expansion of the system opened up undreamed of prospects for promotion and rapid advancement. Pupil-teacher ratios fell steadily. (See Table 14) And teachers were invited to design as well as teach the curriculum. Teachers consumed their own product in vast quantities and qualifications increased dramatically. (See Table 15 and Figure 9)

The situation was so rosy that, as early as 1958, George G. Croskery, then Secretary-Treasurer of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, could write that:

> Having reached the state of maturity and stability, in the process of which they demonstrated their ability to negotiate, to co-operate, and to stand resolute and strong when necessity required it, teachers' organizations are now in a position to devote less time and energy to those matters which might be classed under the heading "the welfare of their members" and give more of their attention to the improvement of education through the studying of curriculum and methods, application of new teaching aids and techniques, educational research,

FIGURE 9

PER CENT OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY TEACHERS WITH DEGREES BY PROVINCE, 1960-61 AND 1973-74



Note: For P.E.I. 1972-73 figure is used instead of 1973-74
Source: Derived from Table 15

and the stepping-up of the qualifications of teachers. (Croskery, 1957, p. 267)

Teachers felt that at last they could focus on real human concerns in education. The hated external examinations, set and marked through the provincial departments of education, were starting to disappear, despite protests from some universities, which wished to continue using them as screening devices for admission. New courses could be instituted to meet special needs. Schools could become drop-in centres, day-care centres, community centres, whatever the world needed. Reading specialists, counsellors, librarians and other specialists became attached to the schools. Teachers dreamed that they might now educate the whole child, deal with individual differences and meet special needs. John Macdonald dreamed that teachers would be recognized as experts and autonomous decision-makers working in teams (Macdonald, 1970, p. 32)

There was a growing belief among teachers that they could at long last achieve some of their professional aims. Teachers felt that they could become partners with government in the advancement of education. Representation on advisory committees at both provincial and school board levels was sought and frequently granted. Teachers contributed funds for research and in one instance jointly, with their trustees, founded a curriculum institute. The associations hired additional professional staff to promote teacher growth and to help teachers cope with the curriculum changes being imposed on the schools. The teacher associations produced documents outlining needed changes in the financing of education, the development of preschool and compensatory education, libraries, the reform of secondary education. Teachers voluntarily formed a myriad of specialist councils associated with the main

provincial federations. Teacher education moved into the universities and teachers sought to enter into faculty-field relationships which would lead to improved teacher training. Innovation was rewarded, and the traditional ways scorned. The teacher organizations felt that they might become a powerful force in the development of a truly humane educational system. To quote George Croskery again:

> There was a time not so many years ago when teachers' organizations were looked upon by trustees, some departmental officials, yes, and even inspectors and superintendents, with a certain amount of suspicion and an element of fear. Fortunately, this attitude has become a matter of history. Teachers' opinions are freely sought, and their representatives are welcome around the conference table. (Croskery, 1958, p. 262)

Teachers also felt that the time might be ripe to acquire the hallmarks of a true profession. The organizations in B.C., Alberta, Saskatchewan and Ontario developed plans for assuming responsibility for the competence of their members. These plans included procedures for peer evaluation, remedial work and recognition of outstanding service. Plans were also made for teachers to assume greater power over qualification levels. The Ontario Teachers' Federation, for example, developed a scheme for creating a register of qualified teachers. Agencies for evaluating teacher qualifications were set up by a number of associations.

At the school board level, teacher-trustee committees were formed to study and solve educational problems of every variety. At the school level, the hierarchical structures came under fire. Studies of organizations had shown that satisfaction and

production both increased if decision-making power was distributed throughout the organization and if those who were affected by a decision shared in the making of the decision. The principal was constantly exhorted to abandon his autocratic "captain of a tight ship" style and become a leader in true democratic tradition or, better still, first among a collegial group of equals. Some educators were even interested in inviting students and parents into the decision-making structures.

Ironically, however, conditions for developing these democratic ideals were becoming less encouraging, with the development of large districts, large diversified schools, and increased departmentalization within schools. (See Table 10, which indicates increases in average size of school, and Figure 7 which provides graphic illustration)

Nevertheless, there was a sense of optimism, that once the pressure of numbers softened, the schools could move forward into a new era of humane and enlightened educational practices of benefit to the whole society.

6 The Fruits of Success

And then . . . and then . . .

About 1969, the bubble burst. One after another, the provinces altered their priorities. Saskatchewan teachers were early victims of the change. Between 1969 and 1970, the Saskatchewan teaching force was reduced by 600 out of 12,000 (5%). By 1971, it was down 300 more. The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation conducted a survey of the staff reductions and reported the following results in the *Saskatchewan Bulletin*:

> School programs were hurt at both the elementary and secondary levels.
>
> In the opinion of 37 per cent of all principals, continuous progress programs (the division system) suffered setbacks.
>
> Individualized instruction programs suffered in 47.2 per cent of the schools. At both levels, teachers were less able to pay individual attention to children in 53.6 per cent of the schools.
>
> At the secondary level, over 200 courses were dropped as a direct result of reduction of professional staff. Courses dropped tended to be in the fine arts, vocational and physical education areas. Many smaller high schools were reduced to a straight academic program.
>
> In rural areas, 81 schools this year found themselves with an increase in the number of grades per classroom, which increased the teacher workload and decreased time available for instruction at each grade level.

> Although the questionnaire neglected to inquire about specialized services, 41 principals reported reduction in library services affected the quality of education in their schools. Guidance services were reported cut by 10 principals, and elimination or reduction of remedial services was the complaint of 33 principals. Loss of specialist services may have affected many more schools.
>
> An increase in the number of dropouts was experienced in 8.4 per cent of the schools. Increased incidence of discipline problems was found in 22.4 per cent of the schools. (Friesen, 1971, S-1)

Other provinces soon followed suit, placing more and more severe limits on the growth of educational expenditures.

What had happened? The new style of education was becoming exceedingly expensive. And it was no longer needed. Ironically, it was no longer needed because it had succeeded too well! It had, for example, in some fashion or another dealt with the horde of children which had suddenly descended upon it. It had also improved participation and retention right through post-secondary education. (See Tables 4 & 6) The input into vocational education had proved to be something of a failure, as parents continued to direct their children into the university and professional programs which they associated with higher socio-economic status, while vocational facilities stood idle or became dumping grounds for the rejects from the academic stream.

However, by the time the baby boom children began moving into the labour force, the jobs for which they had been busily preparing themselves had begun to disappear. Student protests tapered off and vanished, as students began to address the hard problem of finding

jobs that matched their training. They blamed the schools for misleading them into thinking that the world belonged to the educated. Somehow, no one had really noticed that the more educated people there were, the less value their education would have in the market. The drop in the perceived value of education was reflected in a slight drop in retention in a number of provinces between 1971 and 1973. (See Table 6)

The Economic Council of Canada started talking about cost-benefit analysis in education and questioned whether further investment in education would bring about much gain in economic growth. (Economic Council, 1971, pp. 195-224) One after one, politicians and officials rose to scream about the escalating cost of education, proclaiming that it could not go on. It was further noted that, while access to higher education had improved, most university students still came from families which enjoyed higher socio-economic status in Canada. (Secretary of State, 1976, p. 42) It was also pointed out that the poor were being taxed to support educational institutions which mainly benefited the rich. So education had not really solved any social problems after all. In fact, it had created a new problem — the unemployed university graduate.

Other social sectors, such as health and welfare, began to clamor for a greater share of resources. And for a time, it appeared that the primary concern for education might be competition with other social services. For example, from 1969 to 1972, the per cent of government expenditures devoted to health and social welfare continued to increase, while the per cent going to education declined. (Statistics Canada, 1976, p. 73. See also Table 11) However, it soon became apparent that all of the public services were out of favour and must be restricted. Public spending was, in the political view,

simply getting out of hand. In fact, so worried were the provincial politicians that by 1975 they had managed to talk the federal government into implementing the anti-inflation program, which was primarily directed against the public sector.

Symptomatic of the beginning of the changed era was the appearance of a new term — "accountability". Teachers, it was felt, had had many resources thrown their way. By now, obviously they should be able to demonstrate that Johnny *could* read, and cipher too, for that matter. Fortunately, the full horrors of performance contracting and accountability were not visited upon Canadian schools. (Performance contracting, it may be remembered, was a United States attempt to improve school achievement by letting out instructional contracts to private companies which guaranteed specific gains in pupil achievement. At least one of these companies was caught cheating.) However, teachers were left visibly shaken by their narrow escape and contemplating the possibility of some return to external examination, principally through standardized achievement testing and other forms of school and teacher evaluation.

7 Teacher Response to Changing Conditions

As the changed attitudes to education became more evident, teachers began to be forced into a defensive stance. For a long time, it had been possible to achieve gains in salaries, benefits and working conditions without resorting to strikes and, in some cases, without requiring any legal negotiations structure. In Ontario, in particular, board-teacher negotiations took place by gentleman's agreement, and the Ontario Teachers' Federation was on record as opposing the use of the strike.

But then came the cutbacks and the restraints. Teachers, who had earlier fought against being included in unemployment insurance, were suddenly among the claimants. While no hard data on the extent of teacher unemployment are available, it is clear that there is a growing pool of experienced teachers looking for work. Moreover, it is evident that many new graduates each year do not find employment in teaching.*

Not only had unemployment appeared. Teachers were also being forced to fight for conditions of work which they had once taken for granted. Education is, by its very nature, labour-intensive. Hence the major way to cut educational costs is to increase class sizes. However, this particular way of reducing costs cuts through to the

* While full statistics are not available, a number of provincial associations report that they are aware of thousands of unemployed teachers in their area. Moreover, it is estimated that less than half of the 1977 graduates in education found jobs in teaching.

professional bone of teachers. Most teachers feel instinctively that there is a limit to the number of students they may competently handle in a day. Moreover, if there is an expectation that the teacher will provide more individual help, then class sizes must diminish, not increase. Larger numbers increase teacher stress and may restrict teachers to fairly rigid teaching styles. This position clearly has logical validity, although research has not yet provided full scientific verification.

By the late sixties, class size had become an issue, and it has remained one ever since. That pupil-teacher ratios have not increased during the 1970's and, in fact, have decreased slightly (see Table 14) is probably due to the intensive action of teachers in defending this aspect of their working conditions. Although workload clauses are by no means universal, they are nevertheless far more plentiful in teacher agreements than they were five years ago. In particular, Quebec teachers and secondary school teachers in Ontario have been fairly successful in negotiating workload provisions. (See examples in Appendix B)

The new financial constraints placed unbearable strains on the old informal and local procedures for negotiating teacher agreements. By the early 1970's all provinces had enacted legislation providing for teacher negotiations. Moreover, six provinces were involved in provincial or bi-level negotiations. The incidence of teacher strikes grew and, in some provinces, strike action began to acquire a political tone. The dramatic one-day protest by the Ontario Teachers' Federation in 1973 was a confrontation with government over the right to free collective bargaining, not a sanction against an employer. A demonstration of this type would have seemed unthinkable a decade earlier.

The decline in enrolment and the appearance of unemployment brought new concerns about job security. While legislated tenure provisions had been achieved long since, these provisions did not contemplate the possibility of layoffs. In dealing with this problem, the tendency has been to negotiate layoff provisions rather than seek legislated protection. In fact, some groups of teachers moved tenure as well as other job security provisions into their negotiated agreements. The incidence of such provisions has increased considerably in the past few years, although some teachers are prohibited by legislation from negotiating this aspect of working conditions. (See Appendix B for examples of job security clauses.)

The expected participation in decision-making did not materialize. There was, for example, no longer any guarantee that teacher-trustee committees would be established informally or that teacher advice would be accepted. Teachers, therefore, sought to have consultation rights incorporated within their collective agreements. The provincial governments continued on their merry way, instituting curriculum and program reforms with little or no prior consultation with teachers. The latest example of sudden curriculum change is the decision to pay heed to the demands of such groups as the Canadian Chamber of Commerce and institute a "Back to the Basics" reform. The view expressed by the Chamber was that there had been a deterioration in the basic communication skills possessed by Canadian students entering post-secondary educational institutions. (Canadian Chamber of Commerce, 1975) The provincial governments have responded to this criticism by moving toward reintroduction of core curriculum, compulsory courses, controlled timetables and provincially-designed programs, and away from locally-developed curriculum.

Although much lip service was given to the need for democracy in school administration, in fact, more pressure was placed on principals to assume hiring, evaluation and firing duties, and to take, if anything, more responsibility for school decisions. A recent study by the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation indicated that teachers still felt that decisions which should be made by teachers, parents and students were in fact being made by principals and other administrators. For example, the teachers surveyed felt that the Ministry of Education now has the responsibility for determining what courses should be compulsory, whereas they would prefer that students and teachers make this decision. They felt that principals largely determined examination and attendance policies, whereas they would prefer that responsibility for decisions in this area be shared by students, parents and teachers. (OSSTF, 1976, p. 131)

Governments and employers also continued their attempts to drive wedges between teachers and principals. For example, the new Ontario legislation covering teacher negotiations prohibited principals from going on strike, although it did not remove them from the teacher bargaining unit. By contrast, however, the new Nova Scotia legislation specified the steps to be followed by principals in closing the schools before going out on strike. The controversy over the role of the principal continues.

Teachers did not gain control over qualifications, either. Far from granting professional autonomy to new groups, governments put the established professions under fire and moved to restrict their powers. A society that no longer trusted its doctors and lawyers could hardly be expected to trust its teachers. There was probably also an underlying fear that teachers might use

such powers to improve the economic status of teachers by restricting supply.

Recent rounds of negotiation suggest even harder times ahead. Rights and benefits previously gained through negotiation or legislation are not safe. For example, the first offer received by the New Brunswick teachers in 1976 suggested, among other things, the removal of job security, the institution of merit pay and a minimum class size of 30. While such proposals are not always meant seriously, they nevertheless suggest that rights and privileges won from government are constantly subject to challenge and possible revocation.

How then may one sum up the present situation? In a nutshell, declining enrolments and economic stagnation have combined to decrease the perceived value of education, to limit improvements and to put teachers on the defensive. And competition with health and welfare has developed as a result of restraints on all public spending. What, in this context, are the prospects for the future, and through what means may the problems raised by solved?

8 Looking to the Future

While the future refuses to be foretold, one may nevertheless speculate about what is to come, raise questions, and think about possible strategies that teachers might pursue.

Is it, for example, possible that a new baby boom will arrive to increase again the demand for teachers?

Will Canada enter a new period of economic growth capable of bringing new prosperity to public services? Is it even reasonable, any more, to expect much economic growth? (Not to mention defensible.)

Must teachers wait for improvements in education until the baby boom wave has passed entirely through the population and there is once again a shortage of educated manpower?

Will those who believe that education should be the prerogative of the elite relent and take a more generous view?

Since none of these possibilities appear imminent, it would seem appropriate to consider what arguments teachers may present, and what actions they may take, to move education back towards its egalitarian and democratic purposes, and to secure for teachers the standard of working conditions which would enable them to meet those purposes.

Some have argued that it is only through political action that teachers may achieve the changes that they regard as necessary. But, what is political action? Is it

confrontation . . . strikes . . . demonstrations? Clearly, such action is occasionally necessary, and can have much dramatic effect, especially when an important principle is at stake. But the public, and teachers too, grow weary of strikes. Moreover, frequent and lengthy strikes lose teachers more friends than they gain.

Is political action, then, the endorsement of a specific political party? To date, teachers in Canada have said that it is not, that they will endorse only individual candidates who speak in favour of teacher policies.

Perhaps political action resides in the power to register a negative vote. Teachers have done this, have helped to vote out the incumbent parties. But the negative vote loses its power if successive incumbents take up the restrictive policies of their predecessors, irrespective of their campaign promises.

One may also interpret political action as an attempt to influence decision-makers. The teacher presence on advisory committees is part of this approach. But it may backfire if teachers become associated with decisions which they cannot support. Lobbying is another aspect of political action, but it too carries a tarnished image.

What then?

Discussions already begun within the Canadian Teachers' Federation suggest that the time may be right to seek anew a public affirmation of the value of education. The key participants in the educational process remain the child, the parent, and the teacher. And the parents are not, on the whole, angry with the teachers or dissatisfied with the schools. Successive surveys of parents have failed to reveal negative attitudes. (See, for example, FWTAO, 1972, and OPSMTF, 1976)

If most people still like their schools, why is there so widespread an impression of negative attitudes? It would appear that the hostility to education and teachers is, in part at least, a myth created by the media. And politicians have found it to their advantage to go along with this myth and foster its development.

However, if public support for education is still there, then the obvious message for teachers is to mobilize and build on this "grass roots" support. Teachers must make it clear that their main reasons for being in classrooms are love of learning and love of children. Teachers and parents working together can become a powerful force in the move to gain and maintain educational systems of high quality. Whatever its current market value, education still has an absolute value which makes a difference to the life of the individual and the quality of life in a society. Ignorance is not bliss. It is those who know who can reshape society and bring it closer to its ideals. If Canada is in fact a country which subscribes to democratic and egalitarian ideals, then the denial of educational opportunities to any inhabitant must be regarded as against the public interest. Teachers must therefore, seek avidly for their allies among parents and public and defend education against any actions which would impair the quality of schooling or the status of teachers.

APPENDIX A

Statistical Tables

Table 1. Birth Rate (Live Births per Thousand), Canada, 1950-1977

Year	Live Births per Thousand
1950	27.1
1955	28.2
1960	26.8
1965	21.3
1970	17.5
1975[e]	15.7
1976[e]	15.8
1977[e]	15.7

[e]Estimates provided by the Information Service, Statistics Canada

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Vital Statistics*. Ottawa: Information Canada, 1974, p. 9.
Statistics Canada, *Quarterly Publication on Vital Statistics*, 4th Quarter, 1976 and 2nd Quarter, 1977.

Table 2. School Age Population, by Province, 1950-1975
(thousands)

Year[1]	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Canada
Population Age 5-19													
1950	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,513.3
1955	135.6	30.0	199.1	172.8	1,342.2	1,283.0	277.1	242.2	293.0	314.1	2.6	5.6	4,237.3
1960	160.6	33.0	221.8	199.0	1,579.8	1,618.0	253.2	268.2	414.0	368.7	3.6	6.8	5,126.7
1965	184.5	35.9	244.2	217.9	1,824.6	1,962.4	287.4	298.6	452.8	511.9	4.5	8.3	6,033.0
1970	192.3	36.8	248.3	216.4	1,935.1	2,274.8	299.1	303.9	520.1	623.0	5.3	11.6	6,666.7
1975[p]	192.6	36.7	244.5	209.8	1,813.1	2,488.4	286.1	273.6	532.5	668.8	6.5	13.9	6,567.0
Population Age 20-24													
1950	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,108.4
1955	29.5	6.3	48.2	36.6	349.7	364.4	57.9	60.9	81.7	83.8	1.0	1.9	1,121.9
1960	33.0	7.1	50.7	42.7	378.9	396.5	60.0	58.0	88.0	99.9	0.9	1.8	1,217.5
1965	39.6	7.7	57.4	46.7	448.3	443.1	65.4	63.8	96.2	116.8	0.8	1.5	1,377.3
1970	49.2	10.0	68.6	59.1	555.2	637.6	83.7	77.5	130.6	176.8	1.0	2.5	1,851.3
1975[p]	55.6	11.2	78.2	68.4	606.4	735.4	94.0	87.5	162.9	217.1	1.6	3.0	2,121.3

[p]preliminary. [1]The years are as of June 1.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Population 1921-1971*.
Information for 1975 given by Population Estimates, Canada and the Provinces Unit, Statistics Canada.

Table 3. School Age Population as a Per Cent of Total Provincial Population, 1950-1975

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Canada
						Population Age 5-19							
1950	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	25.6
1955	33.4	30.0	29.2	31.6	29.7	24.4	25.9	28.9	26.9	23.4	23.6	31.1	27.0
1960	35.9	32.0	30.5	33.8	30.7	26.5	27.9	29.6	32.1	23.0	25.7	30.0	28.7
1965	37.8	32.9	32.3	35.4	32.1	28.9	29.8	31.4	31.2	28.5	32.1	30.7	30.7
1970	37.2	33.4	31.8	34.5	32.2	30.1	30.4	32.3	32.7	29.3	31.2	35.2	31.3
1975[p]	35.1	30.9	29.7	31.1	29.3	30.3	28.1	29.8	30.1	27.2	31.3	36.8	28.8
						Population Age 20-24							
1950	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.1
1955	7.3	6.3	7.1	6.7	7.7	6.9	6.9	6.9	7.5	6.2	9.1	10.6	7.2
1960	7.4	6.9	7.0	7.3	7.4	6.5	6.6	6.3	6.8	6.2	6.4	8.2	6.8
1965	8.1	7.1	7.6	7.6	7.8	6.5	6.8	6.7	6.6	6.5	5.7	5.6	7.0
1970	9.5	9.1	8.8	9.4	9.2	8.4	8.5	8.2	8.2	8.3	5.9	7.6	8.7
1975[p]	10.1	9.4	9.5	10.1	9.8	8.9	9.2	9.5	9.2	8.8	7.7	7.9	9.3

Source: See Table 1.

Table 4. Per Cent of Various Age Groups at School, by Province, 1960-61 to 1974-75

Year	Newfoundland			Prince Edward Island			Nova Scotia		
	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	5-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years
1960-61	108.9*	51.9	3.9	106.5	59.2	8.5	106.1	57.2	10.3
1965-66	110.2	55.1	7.9	107.5	73.5	11.3	106.9	69.0	14.4
1970-71	110.5	64.2	11.8	111.1	85.7	15.9	106.4	81.2	19.1
1971-72	110.4	65.1	13.0	108.9	82.5	17.5	105.7	82.0	19.4
1972-73	109.5	64.2	12.3	106.9	77.4	14.2	105.2	81.3	18.1
1973-74	107.1	64.9	10.8	104.3	79.5	15.2	104.3	79.7	18.0
1974-75	106.5	65.5	10.1	105.4	71.6	14.5	103.9	80.3	18.2

Year	New Brunswick			Quebec			Ontario		
	5-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	5-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years
1960-61	109.3	59.7	9.7	108.4	43.9	11.0	104.7	83.0	9.0
1965-66	109.2	68.7	14.3	107.1	74.0	14.7	105.4	96.0	12.1
1970-71	109.6	83.6	16.5	97.5	98.4	17.5	104.5	105.4	19.3
1971-72	108.5	84.9	16.3	96.3	99.3	18.7	102.7	104.5	19.5
1972-73	106.8	87.5	13.9	92.1	104.6	20.5	101.7	104.3	19.2
1973-74	106.6	84.2	13.0	87.1	108.5	21.4	100.9	102.7	20.1
1974-75	105.7	83.8	12.4	87.2	107.7	22.1	100.5	102.1	20.5

*Percentages over 100 reflect variations in the method and time of collecting population and enrolment data.

Table 4 (cont'd)

Year	Manitoba			Saskatchewan			Alberta		
	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years
1960-61	105.4	70.1	9.5	106.2	76.8	9.8	106.7	84.9	7.9
1965-66	105.6	82.2	13.5	105.0	85.8	13.6	103.9	90.4	13.5
1970-71	105.0	92.7	17.0	104.6	91.6	15.9	104.5	97.8	21.1
1971-72	105.0	88.5	17.3	104.4	89.6	16.6	103.0	95.0	20.5
1972-73	103.0	90.1	16.2	104.6	87.0	14.5	102.9	93.4	19.5
1973-74	102.3	89.5	15.7	102.7	86.3	14.3	101.3	94.7	20.0
1974-75	102.1	86.9	15.6	104.1	85.8	13.4	101.9	94.0	19.9

Year	British Columbia			Yukon & N.W.T.			Canada		
	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years	6-13 years	14-17 years	18-24 years
1960-61	105.6	83.9	10.8	100.7	34.2	..	106.7	66.4	9.7
1965-66	110.3	91.3	14.8	101.3	58.0	..	106.7	83.8	13.4
1970-71	107.1	97.7	17.5	102.5	60.3	..	103.3	97.8	18.1
1971-72	104.7	93.4	15.9	110.6	67.4	..	101.9	97.0	18.5
1972-73	105.8	94.0	14.6	106.6	58.6	..	100.3	98.4	18.4
1973-74	104.6	95.0	14.8	111.4	63.5	..	98.2	99.0	18.9
1974-75	102.3	91.7	15.1	112.4	73.3	..	98.0	98.1	19.2

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada*, 1973, p. 210: 1974, p. 138: 1975, p. 124: 1976, p. 103.

Table 5. Enrolment by Level of Education, by Province, 1960-61 to 1975-76

Year	Newfoundland		Prince Edward Island		Nova Scotia	
	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.
1960-61	129,135	1,747	25,179	805	186,679	7,488
1965-66	147,677	4,171	28,527	1,127	206,702	11,471
1970-71	160,852	7,798	30,057	2,105	216,615	18,481
1975-76[p]	158,175	8,145	27,922	2,171	205,141	20,788

Year	New Brunswick		Quebec		Ontario	
	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.
1960-61	155,276	5,401	1,193,137	58,162	1,423,560	48,771
1965-66	168,389	8,998	1,493,653	96,752	1,801,669	80,489
1970-71	175,497	13,278	1,642,184	136,489	2,053,396	175,514
1975-76[p]	166,258	12,476	1,468,571	194,437	2,057,775	219,341

Year	Manitoba		Saskatchewan		Alberta	
	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.
1960-61	205,628	8,023	218,522	8,220	305,331	9,814
1965-66	241,466	13,124	245,709	12,463	378,472	19,373
1970-71	260,926	20,318	255,368	16,965	431,024	40,967
1975-76[p]	242,671	21,776	228,106	16,747	448,900	47,452

Table 5 (cont'd)

Year	British Columbia		Yukon		Northwest Territories	
	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.
1960-61	347,305	14,712	2,809	-	4,467	-
1965-66	462,687	25,644	3,271	-	6,419	-
1970-71	550,249	43,633	4,090	-	8,192	-
1975-76[p]	568,287	48,775	4,975	-	12,496	-

Year	Overseas		Canada	
	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.	Elem.-Sec.	Post-Sec.
1960-61	7,274	-	4,204,302	163,143
1965-66	7,800	-	5,201,241	273,612
1970-71	7,916	-	5,796,366	475,548
1975-76[p]	4,624	-	5,593,901	592,108

Ppreliminary.
Source: Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada*, annuals (1973, 1974, 1975, 1976).

Table 6. Grade 12 Enrolment Related to Grade 2 Enrolment Ten Years Earlier, Adjusted for Population Movement, by Province, 1965-66 to 1975-76

Province	1965-66	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974[P]-75	1975[P]-76
Newfoundland	...	...	...	...	...	...	63.5[1]
Prince Edward Island	42.3	60.2	52.4	51.5	50.5	50.1	57.2
Nova Scotia	32.5	52.7	52.0	53.4	51.7	53.9	57.9
New Brunswick	41.5	58.5	61.9	62.0	60.0	60.3	62.5
Quebec	29.4	62.9	71.2	73.6	78.3[P]	80.1	87.6[1]
Ontario	59.0	71.4	70.4	68.9	66.0	67.1	69.8
Manitoba	59.8	72.8	72.2	70.4	68.7	65.6	69.1
Saskatchewan	66.7	76.6	74.8	72.4	69.6	68.6	70.2
Alberta[2]	86.1	89.3	88.7	84.8	84.1	81.6	83.4
British Columbia	68.8	78.8	75.4	71.6	70.5	70.6	72.8
Yukon & Northwest Territories	...	31.2	33.2	37.9	47.6	40.6	44.8
Canada	50.5	69.8	71.5	71.0	70.8	71.5	75.2
Coefficient of Variation	34.8	16.8	17.0	15.4	16.8	16.0	17.9

[P]preliminary.

[1]Grade XI enrolment in Newfoundland (Secondary V in Quebec) compared with Grade II enrolment nine years earlier.

[2]The figures for Alberta are not comparable with other provinces because method of classification by grade differs from that of other provinces.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada*, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1976. Ottawa: Statistics Canada.

Table 7. Total Spending on Elementary and Secondary Education per Student Enrolled, by Province, Selected Years 1960 to 1974

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada	Coefficient of Variation[1]
1960	$ 154	$ 167	$ 356	$ 205	$ 276	$ 338	$ 311	$ 365	$ 402	$ 388	$ 284	30.93
1965	202	274	310	282	468	493	453	473	515	499	397	29.27
1970	413	527	564	597	782	910	704	655	835	734	672	22.50
1971	504	592	619	600	827	969	781	682	896	797	727	20.65
1972	574	648	690	686	885	1,048	876	757	969	876	801	19.07
1973	852	989	915	875	1,276	1,271	1,165	1,038	1,208	1,188	1,204	15.20
1974	919	1,229	994	1,117	1,367	1,276	1,284	1,175	1,253	1,215	1,270	11.64

[1]Excludes the Northwest Territories and the Yukon.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Elementary Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1973-74*, p. 61 for 1970 to 1972, and corresponding reports for earlier years.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1974-75*, p. 76. for 1973.
Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1976*.

Table 8. Per Cent of Expenditures on Elementary and Secondary Education Derived from Provincial Sources of Funds, by Province, Selected Years 1960 to 1974

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Canada
1960	85.9	60.7	49.1	34.3	36.9	38.6	42.0	40.5	48.5	45.5	50.6	10.8	40.8
1965	86.3	61.5	49.8	30.3	47.2	45.6	45.4	43.0	45.8	40.0	44.8	18.7	45.5
1970	84.5	63.4	52.7	88.6	55.1	52.0	44.6	40.9	55.6	54.9	85.4	80.1	54.1
1971	87.2	71.4	57.6	94.2	63.4	57.9	51.3	45.5	55.5	53.8	85.1	97.1	59.7
1972	87.9	78.8	58.8	96.0	65.9	60.1	51.3	47.8	55.5	56.7	88.1	96.9	61.7
1973	88.7	93.0	60.0	95.5	61.2	60.9	51.6	49.9	57.0	58.1	84.1	96.2	60.8
1974[e]	80.4	90.3	62.0	95.4	69.9	60.8	49.8	52.1	66.4	57.0	83.4	96.7	64.2

[e] estimated.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Decade of Education Finance 1960-69*, pp. 100-107 for 1960-61 and 1965-66.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1974-75*, pp. 20-37.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1973-74*, pp. 20-33.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1972*, pp. 24-37.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1971*, pp. 18-33.
Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education Financial Statistics, 1970*, pp. 18-33.

Table 9. Number of Elementary and Secondary Schools, by Province, 1960-61 to 1975-76

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Overseas Schools	Canada
1960-61	1,255	455	1,377	1,394	8,228	7,719	1,683	2,467	1,295	1,427	20	47	21	27,388
1965-66	1,222	421	1,003	1,134	6,856	6,801	1,747	1,445	1,586	1,904	23	53	18	24,213
1970-71	832	263	741	615	4,949	5,575	839	1,056	1,544	1,971	22	58	14	18,479
1975-76	722	98	640	533	3,007	5,015	821	1,056	1,347	1,784	23	62	11	15,119

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1973*, p. 240.
Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1976*, pp. 40-62.

Table 10. Average Enrolment in Elementary and Secondary Schools,[1] 1960-61 to 1975-76

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Overseas	Canada
1960-61	103	55	136	111	145	184	122	89	236	243	141	95	346	154
1965-66	121	68	206	149	218	265	138	170	239	243	142	121	433	193
1970-71	193	114	292	285	352	368	311	242	279	279	186	141	565	276
1975-76	219	285	321	312	488	410	296	216	333	319	216	202	420	370

[1]calculated by dividing total enrolment by number of schools.

Table 11. Consolidated Expenditure of *all* Governments by Function, Selected Years 1950 to 1974. Fiscal Years Ended Nearest December 31

Functions	Year					
	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1974
	A. Millions of Dollars					
Defence	607	1,760	1,534	1,572	1,725	2,288
Veterans' Pensions and Benefits	210	245	296	372	409	639
Health	232	368	841	1,624	4,224	7,358
Social Welfare	638	1,020	1,629	2,403	5,399	12,660
Education	442	746	1,577	2,860	5,993	8,792
Transportation & Communication	474	842	1,451	2,035	3,247	6,013
Natural Resources & Primary Industry	192	281	567	733	2,089	5,743
Debt Charges	464	543	817	1,258	2,618	4,695
General Government	↑	362	532	771	1,973	4,088
Protection	863	282	448	744	1,354	2,521
Other[1]	↓	543	1,006	1,732	2,120	3,917
Foreign Affairs & International Assistance	17	33	82	126	289	584
Total	4,139	7,025	10,772	16,230	31,440	59,298

[1]Includes recreation and culture; labour, employment and immigration; housing; supervision and development of regions and localities; research establishments; transfers to own enterprises and other expenditures.

Table 11. (cont'd)

Year						
1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1974	Function
B. As a Percentage of Gross National Product[2]						
3.28	6.17	4.00	2.84	2.01	1.55	Defence
1.16	0.86	0.77	0.67	0.48	0.43	Veterans' Pensions and Benefits
1.25	1.29	2.19	2.93	4.93	5.00	Health
3.45	3.58	4.25	4.34	6.30	8.60	Social Welfare
2.39	2.61	4.11	5.17	6.99	5.97	Education
2.56	2.95	3.78	3.68	3.79	4.09	Transportation & Communication
1.04	0.98	1.48	1.32	2.44	3.90	Natural Resources & Primary Industry
2.51	1.90	2.13	2.27	3.06	3.19	Debt Charges
↑	1.27	1.39	1.39	2.30	2.78	General Government
4.67	0.99	1.17	1.34	1.58	1.71	Protection
↓	1.90	2.62	3.13	2.47	2.66	Other[1]
0.09	0.12	0.21	0.23	0.34	0.40	Foreign Affairs & International Assistance
22.38	24.62	28.08	29.32	36.69	40.29	Total

[2]The Gross National Product data on which these percentages were based are as follows ($ million): 1950, 18,491; 1955, 28,528; 1960, 38,359; 1965, 55,364; 1970, 85,685; 1974, 147,175.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Consolidated Government Finance*, selected years.
Statistics Canada, *National Income and Expenditure Accounts*, Vol. 1, The Annual Estimates, 1926-1974.
Statistics Canada, *Canadian Statistical Review*, July, 1977, p. 18.

Table 12. Expenditures for Elementary and Secondary Education as a Per Cent of Total Spending for Education, by Province, Selected Years 1960 to 1974

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada[1]
1960	84.68	74.10	76.87	74.83	73.54	79.09	79.19	83.98	78.07	81.02	77.86
1965	72.36	73.34	62.10	64.66	71.21	71.69	74.40	74.79	78.29	73.67	70.92
1970	60.75	61.46	49.85	63.63	69.27	64.18	64.19	68.19	62.25	65.78	64.85
1971	59.96	60.75	52.88	69.79	70.07	63.47	67.48	67.97	62.44	66.42	65.52
1972	57.39	59.36	59.36	63.62	67.75	64.77	65.30	66.51	61.56	66.79	64.88
1973	63.78	61.72	60.07	64.29	67.81	65.00	66.69	67.26	64.45	66.86	65.52
1974[2]	63.16	65.99	57.12	67.79	65.77	65.25	65.84	67.67	63.22	67.28	64.97

[1]Includes undistributed figures and figures of the Territories.

[2]Preliminary.

Sources: 1960, 1965 and 1970 — Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1973*, pp. 212-213.
1971 — Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1974*, pp. 261-262.
1972 — Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1975*, pp. 355-356.
1973 and 1974 — Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1976*, pp. 262-263.

Table 13. Index of Relative Effort[1]

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada[2]	Coefficient of Variation[3]
1960	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1965	6.27	5.79	7.80	7.04	8.34	8.20	7.62	7.30	7.97	6.56	8.03	11.79
1970	5.94	5.09	5.80	6.48	6.94	6.87	6.49	6.61	6.02	5.90	6.67	9.15
1971	4.97	4.92	5.63	6.11	6.95	6.65	6.48	6.21	5.74	5.25	6.43	11.99
1972	5.52	5.03	5.55	5.57	5.97	6.34	5.79	5.93	5.77	5.01	5.98	7.27
1973	6.35	4.93	4.98	5.06	6.23	5.83	5.69	5.64	5.27	4.61	5.73	10.64
1974[4]	5.12	4.93	4.71	5.19	5.28	5.25	5.05	5.07	4.61	4.21	5.07	6.85

.. Data unavailable.

[1]Consists of total spending for elementary and secondary education calculated as a percentage of total consolidated provincial-local spending and adjusted to equalize for differences in relative educational need (i.e., school-age population as a share of total population).

[2]Includes the Yukon and the Northwest Territories.

[3]Standard deviation divided by the arithmetic mean. Excludes the Yukon and the Northwest Territories.

[4]Figures on total expenditures for elementary-secondary education for this year are preliminary.

Sources: Enrolment — *Statistics Canada, Elementary-Secondary School Enrolment, 1975-76,* pp. 38-39. Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada,* 1976, pp. 104-106.
Population — Statistics Canada, *Estimated Population of Canada by Province at June 1, 1976.*
Spending on Education — Statistics Canada, *Elementary-Secondary Education — Financial Statistics, 1973-74,* p. 44.
Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1976,* p. 262.
Consolidated Expenditure — Statistics Canada, *Consolidated Government Finance, 1965, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974.*

Table 14. Pupil-Teacher Ratio, by Province, 1960-61 to 1975-76

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Overseas	Canada
1960-61[1]	29.8	25.0	26.6	25.7	23.3	27.8	25.4	23.9	24.8	26.8	24.2	20.0	19.2	25.6
1965-66[1]	26.2	23.0	25.1	24.2	24.2	25.1	24.1	22.6	23.4	26.3	21.0	18.2	19.7	24.6
1970-71[1]	24.8	19.0	21.3	22.2	20.2	21.5	21.3	22.4	20.9	24.0	20.8	19.3	16.5	21.3
1975-76[2]p	21.2	19.3	18.8	20.9	19.4	21.3	20.0	20.5	20.7	20.8	18.4	19.2	14.9	20.5

p preliminary.

[1]The pupil-teacher ratios for 1960, 1965 and 1970 are taken directly from *Education in Canada, 1973*. They have been calculated on the basis of the total number of full-time teachers and pupils in regular elementary and secondary, private and pre-elementary schools as well as schools for the handicapped. Figures for 1960 do not include data for pre-elementary schools.

[2]Calculated by CTF staff from preliminary data. The preliminary data for elementary-secondary enrolment and teachers are from *Advance Statistics of Education, 1977-78*. Elementary-secondary enrolment includes all public, private and federal schools but excludes private kindergarten and nursery schools. The number of teachers includes full-time teachers only.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Education in Canada, 1973*, p. 257.
Statistics Canada, *Advance Statistics of Education, 1977-78*, pp. 38 and 41.

Table 15. Per Cent of Elementary and Secondary School Teachers with Degrees
Nine Provinces (Quebec Excluded)

Year	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Total
1960-61	10.7	7.2	23.8	14.1	27.4	25.6	16.7	27.7	37.0	25.7
1965-66	14.0	12.1	30.0	19.9	33.7	29.3	. .	38.4	44.2	33.2
1970-71	31.7	29.4	43.0	37.6	. .	41.3	39.5	58.3	56.9	47.6
1971-72	39.0	35.9	45.6	43.1	. .	48.5	43.1	63.2	59.9	52.3
1972-73	45.4	38.6	47.3	47.9	47.2	54.3	46.6	68.4	62.1	51.5*
1973-74	51.6	. .	49.9	52.3	52.6	59.5	52.5	73.8	66.9	56.9*
1974-75	56.1	48.2	52.4	57.4	57.9	64.8	55.6	77.6	70.4	61.5*
1975-76	59.4	57.3	54.6	62.8	54.1	68.9	57.2	81.4	72.3	61.2*

*These total figures are slightly inflated as they include the Yukon and the Northwest Territories.

Source: Statistics Canada, *Salaries and Qualifications of Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools*, 1970-71 and 1971-72, 1972-73 and 1973-74, 1974-75 and 1975-76.

APPENDIX B

Examples of Negotiated Provisions Affecting Workload and Job Security

1. WORKLOAD CLAUSES

ALBERTA Salary Agreement. Edmonton Public School Board. 1976.

13. *Teacher Assignment*

13.1 A teacher will not be assigned duties in excess of thirty (30) hours per week, of which a maximum of twenty-three and one-third (23 1/3) hours will be devoted to instruction of pupils. The remainder of the assignable hours will provide for supervision of students, extra-curricular school activities and professional activities, such as in-service sessions, staff meetings, committee work and parent/teacher interviews.

13.2 Notwithstanding Clause 13.1, a teacher may agree to be timetabled for instructional duties which may vary in the number of hours assigned per week. A teacher shall not be assigned instructional duties which would exceed an average of twenty-three and one-third (23 1/3) hours per week for any given school year.

13.3 The instruction of a single junior high school class in a given course by two (2) or more teachers will occur only with the concurrence of the teachers involved.

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ONTARIO Collective Agreement between Frontenac County Board of Education and Frontenac County Women Teachers' Association and Frontenac District of the Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation, 1976-77.

7. *Conditions of Employment*

7.1 *Noon Recess* - The Board will arrange for a schedule of mid-day supervision that will ensure for each teacher an uninterrupted period of forty minutes for lunch. Where the Principal is unable within his school organization to effect the above, he will refer the problem to the Area Superintendent for action.

7.2 *Class Size*

(i) The Board will endeavour to ensure that the average class size will not exceed the following on a permanent basis:

Kindergarten	- 25
Primary (1, 2 & 3)	- 26
Junior (4, 5, & 6)	- 28
Intermediate (7, 8)	- 30

as calculated on September 30 and January 31. The size of special classes will be in accordance with Ministry of Education guidelines.

(ii) When a Kindergarten or Kindergarten-Primary class increases beyond 25 students on a permanent basis, a Non-teaching Assistant will be provided.

(iii) When a Kindergarten or Kindergarten-Primary class increases beyond 25 students on a permanent basis, reorganization will be undertaken by the Principal and his Area Superintendent.

Action to be taken in connection with the above may be deferred when such permanent increases occur after March 1 in any given school year.

Note: An increase shall be deemed to be permanent if the class registration has remained in excess of 25 or 35 for 20 consecutive school days.

7.4 *Pupil-Teacher Ratio*

(i) The Board will staff each school on a "staff strength ratio" of not more than 24:1 to include all teachers *except* Kindergarten, Special Class, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Instrumental Music, French, Librarians, but including non-teaching administrative time of the Principal and Vice-Principal.
(ii) Nothing in this agreement shall preclude the provision of additional staff to any school in order to implement this agreement.

7.5 *Specialized Programs and Preparation*

Within the provisions of paragraphs 7.3 and 7.4, the Principal will endeavour, by January 1977, to assign to each teacher a minimum of one hour per week (or equivalent) free from teaching and supervision for the purpose of planning, enrichment, co-ordination and evaluation of programs. Where the Principal is unable within the resources of his school organization to effect the above, he will refer the problem to the Area Superintendent and both shall design a plan for the provision of the above, where practicable, through the integration into the school organization of specialized programs.

ONTARIO Collective Agreement between Huron County Board of Education and Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation District No. 45. 1976-77.

14. *Staffing*

14.1 Each secondary school shall have:

(i) one (1) principal
(ii) one (1) vice-principal
(iii) one (1) guidance head
(iv) one (1) librarian

Note: In schools with 500 or fewer students the vice-principal may hold a position of responsibility in addition to that of vice-principal. Where this occurs the vice-principal shall be paid the vice-principal's salary only.

14.2 *Pupil-Teacher Ratio*

(a) The P.T.R. for the County shall be calculated by dividing the projected September enrolment as of April 1 by the teaching staff exclusive of itinerants and Board Office personnel.
(b) Before the P.T.R. for each school year is finalized, the Director of Education will advise the Appeal and Review Committee of the P.T.R. he is going to recommend to the Board.
(c) The County P.T.R. shall range between 16.8 and 17.2 to 1.

14.3 *Workload*

1. The Board shall endeavour to achieve the following guidelines:

   (a) *Maximum Pupil Period Contracts (P.P.C's.)*

Advanced	175
General	155
Technical	140
Special Education	100

   (b) *Maximum Class Size*

- Advanced and Commercial (typing and business machines only)	30 students
- General and Open (including other Commercial subjects)	25 students
- Technical, Home Economics Practical and Special Education Academic	20 students
- Special Education Practical	15 students

   (c) *Lesson Preparations*
   The Board shall endeavour to maintain an average of three lesson preparations per cycle per teacher.

   (d) *Assigned Time*
   Seventy-five percent (75%) instructional, Twenty-five percent (25%) preparation and marking.

   (e) *Appeals*
   Where exceptions to the above guidelines exist on September 30, the teacher involved shall be made aware, by the

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Principal, of the factors causing the exception. If the teacher is not satisfied with the explanation he/she may appeal to the Appeal and Review Committee.

2. The workload for a teacher in a mixed assignment will be pro-rated according to the criteria in 14.3 (1) (a).

   Example: A teacher with four classes Advanced and two classes General should not exceed a P.P.C. of 169.

   $4/6 \times 175 + 2/6 \times 155 = 117 + 52$
   $= 169$

2. JOB SECURITY CLAUSES

NOVA SCOTIA Agreement between Board of School Commissioners of the Town of Amherst and Nova Scotia Teachers Union. 1976-77.

12. *Security of Position*

12.1 In the event that a teaching or supervisory position is phased out, the Board shall guarantee the teacher holding such position, a teaching or supervisory position in the system under the jurisdiction of the Board.

12.2 The teacher must hold a permanent contract and be certified for the position.

12.3 If no position is available for which the teacher is certified, the Board shall, upon the request of the teacher, grant a leave of absence for a maximum of three (3) years until such time as a position becomes available.

ONTARIO Collective agreement between Carleton Board of Education and Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, District No. 43. January 1977 - August 1978.

13. *Surplus Staff*

The Carleton Board of Education has an obligation to staff, in a suitable manner, all

teaching positions. Subsequently, it must therefore retain the right to assign teaching staff to such positions as it feels necessary to best meet the needs of the system. In times of changing staff requirements, and in spite of the Board's best efforts, it may not be possible to place some teachers, employed by the Board, within the regular complement of staff. A sincere and reasonable effort by all parties concerned together with normal staff attrition should allow all teachers to be assigned so that no teachers need to be declared surplus to the requirements of the system.

13.1 A teacher declared surplus is a secondary school teacher employed by the Carleton Board of Education on a permanent contract who, because of changing staff requirements is not assigned to a position in a regular complement of staff. In no case shall a teacher on a permanent contract be declared surplus if that teacher is qualified and capable to fill a position in a regular complement of staff held by a teacher on a probationary contract who will be displaced by the permanent contract teacher.

13.2 The employment of probationary teachers may be terminated at the end of the school year in order to accommodate permanent teachers who are surplus.

13.3 A position in a regular complement of staff is one which the Board plans to maintain during the following school year and does not include a position which may be considered "permanent supply".

13.4 a) Teachers declared surplus to the system's requirements for the following school year will be identified by the Director of Education not later than June 15. At this time the Superintendent of Operations will ensure that such teachers are notified in writing. Teachers so identified will be placed on the supernumerary list from that date to the end of the next school year, at which time their employment with the Carleton Board of Education will terminate unless they have been removed from the supernumerary list.

b) The choice of teachers to be placed on supernumerary list will be based upon seniority, as defined in Article 12.6, provided in all cases staff are qualified and capable of teaching the regular program for the next school year.

13.5 Teachers placed on the supernumerary list will perform such professional duties or undertake such studies as may be assigned from time to time by the Director of Education. These studies can be for the purpose of aiding the teachers to be removed from the surplus list. These studies will be assigned after consultation between the teacher involved and the Director or his designate.

13.6 a) A teacher will be removed from the supernumerary list upon being assigned to any position in the regular complement of staff. When positions are declared vacant they will be filled by appropriately qualified and capable teachers from the supernumerary

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list in accordance with Sections 12.3 and 12.4 of the Procedures for Transfers and Placements.

b) Where there are no qualified teachers on the supernumerary list, first consideration will be given to those teachers whose contracts were terminated within the last twelve months because they were declared redundant.

Where a teacher's termination is rescinded by the Board, there shall be no interruption in service or experience credits.

13.7 A committee consisting of representatives of both parties shall meet in October of each year to review the operation of the procedures herein contained.

13.8 The application of seniority shall be as set out in Article 12.6 of the Procedures for Transfers and Placements.

13.9 A teacher whose employment with the Carleton Board of Education is terminated under provisions of Section 13.4 will be given a letter stating the cause of release as "surplus due to changing staff requirements".

13.10 A teacher whose employment is terminated under the provisions of Section 13.4 shall have the option of accepting either:

a) a lump sum payment of 1/12 of his annual gross salary at the time of release, or

b) the retirement gratuity for which he/she would be eligible under the terms of the

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current Collective Agreement with the "ten-year" minimum service period being waived.

Before any payment is made to a teacher under this section, the teacher will inform the Board in writing of the option he/she has chosen. Such payment will be payable to the teacher on termination or on any date in the twelve months subsequent to the termination date as designated by the teacher.

A teacher on a supernumerary list who declines to accept a position on a regular complement of staff offered him/her by the Board loses any claim under the terms of this section.

13.11 A teacher on a supernumerary list shall continue to enjoy those benefits including crediting of teaching experience which he/she would have had in his/her previous position with the Board under the terms of the current Collective Agreement.

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